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## *The Junior College and National Defense*

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THE junior colleges of America can contribute immeasurably to the present emergency by providing a unique service to the country through the use of facilities and established programs existing in no other higher institutions.

During World War II these facilities were not utilized, but we are determined they will be used this time. To implement this purpose, your president appointed a committee on National Defense composed of Basil H. Peterson, chairman; Lawrence Bethel; Paul Gaiser; Harry Jenkins; and Fred Marston assisted by Jesse P. Bogue.

Founded on the fact that our nation will need all the educated leaders possible if we are to successfully compete with the hordes of Russia and China, this committee has produced *A Suggested Plan for National Defense*. Basically, it embraces the idea of education and military training at one and the same time. It is in contrast to proposals from the Pentagon.

The Pentagon plan is based on the premise that military training can not be combined with an educational program; it assumes that only the military can handle a pro-

gram done in military camps on a full-time basis. It recognizes the need for education but contends that a four-year deferment of 75,000 men each year will fulfill the leadership needs of the country in the long pull ahead. The recent meeting of the Association of American Colleges in Atlantic City favors such a plan as do such educational leaders as Dr. Conant, Dr. Carmichael and Dr. Baxter. Some leaders of the four-year college group expressed themselves at the recent A.C.E. meeting as opposed to a coordinate program of military training and education. They argue that the military will dominate education and that the result will be something foreign to American education as we know it today. On the one hand the Pentagon does not believe the colleges can give military training effectively and on the other, the liberal arts colleges fear that the result will be long-time military domination of higher education. The R.O.T.C. and N.R.O.-T.C. in land grant colleges and the Navy V-12 program during the last war refute these arguments.

At the recent Senatorial hearing in Washington your Association

president's was the one voice that did not endorse the Pentagon's views. He was preceded by Dr. Earl J. McGrath of the U.S. Office of Education. Dr. McGrath had, in the main, gone along with the Pentagon's universal military training program. When he had finished, Senator Wayne Morse of Oregon set the stage by declaring that, "What we need is a marriage of military training and education. Yet, no one has come forth with such a proposal." At this point your president was called to testify and state that the junior college plan offered just such a marriage and that it would provide the following benefits:

1. An efficient use of the young man in college by furnishing his military training at the same time that he pursues his education.
2. A backlog of young men for the military services who would possess the needed specialized training and/or the basic military training.
3. The trained instructors who know their subject matter and how to teach it.
4. Faculty members with military experience in World War II who could handle the military training phase. In many training situations in the last war, all the military training was handled by former college and high school teachers. Every college faculty has many of these men.
5. A working organization ready to administer and do the twin job of military training and education without the inefficiencies bound to occur in any new organization; e.g., in newly established military bases.

6. Facilities ready for immediate use without the necessity for building new ones. These facilities (class rooms, physical education plants and dormitories) are now being rapidly emptied while at the same time the government must build additional facilities to handle the flood of young men now entering the military services.

All the above cited benefits are available to the government and can be implemented by (1) setting up Senior R.O.T.C. units and other similar military units and (2) establishing special training programs in the colleges now doing this same type of work. (The junior colleges were excluded in this type of work in World War II though many of them did carry out the programs for universities who were awarded these contracts.)

Our plan makes it possible for 150,000 young men to receive military training while acquiring an education. If it is adopted, a program could be put into operation that would avoid much of the waste that accompanied military training in World Wars I and II. We have a chance to sell the nation on the most progressive plan yet offered, one that makes sense when a ten-year period of cold or hot war is in the offing. The colleges of this Association should give the plan a hearty approval; mere lip service is not enough.

# *The Technical Institute and General Education*

ISRAEL KUGLER

ONE of the most recent developments in the field of higher education has been the expansion of the two-year technical terminal curriculum. The idea is not new, for over 100 years ago mechanics' institutions attempted to develop just such a program.

American society in the 19th century was just emerging into industrialism, and the expanding need for engineers caused the mechanics' institutes to recede into the background. The increased complexity of today's industrial system has imperiously called forth the necessity of a technical staff to assist and supplement the professional engineer, lawyer, doctor, dentist, or accountant. Modern industry requires an ever-increasing number of clerical and organizational services.

Surveys have indicated, for example, an average ratio of 5.2 technicians to every engineer,<sup>1</sup> and revealed that the automobile industry has created a greater payroll in its sales and service aspects than in direct manufacture.<sup>2</sup>

Industry and professional societies have not awakened to the necessity of providing education for technicians until recently. The manpower shortage of skilled technical workers was demonstrated by the experience of World War II.

Using engineers in below-capacity positions was too expensive and morale shattering. Upgrading ex-apprentice journeymen was too inadequate a source.

Higher education in its traditional form has allowed too many students to drop out in their freshman and sophomore years. Economic costs, lack of intellectual ability, absence of practical technical courses — all have contributed to this high rate of attrition. This defect in higher education can only be corrected by providing educational opportunity for those students who could profit by a post-high school technical career.

Of the institutions of higher learning which can in some measure be called technical institutes, three general types may be distinguished:

1. Established institutes providing in large measure purely technical education, with little science, and no general education. Cal-Aero Institute and RCA Institute may be cited as examples.
2. Junior colleges adopting more technical courses on a two-year terminal basis, yet still retaining much of the character of the first two years of the liberal arts college. The junior colleges in Chicago and California are of this type.

<sup>1</sup>*Vocational-Technical Training for Industrial Occupations*, Bulletin No. 228. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Office of Education, 1944. 22.

<sup>2</sup>Kahler, Alfred and Ernest Hamburger. *Education for an Industrial Age*. Ithaca and New York: Cornell, 1948. 28.

3. The newer technical institutes which represent elements from the above mentioned types. These combine technical, science and general education courses to meet the needs of the student and the community. The institutes which are part of the State University of New York represent this category.

The technical institute, with its emphasis on education for a technical career, has become the latest arena for the defenders of general education. The R.C.A. Institutes offer two English courses, twice a week for one year as the sum total of general education.<sup>3</sup> The Pasadena Junior College, in its aviation technology course, has eliminated all cultural subjects.<sup>4</sup> Cal-Aero Technical Institute, with a twinge of conscience, interestingly quotes Dean G. M. Butler of the University of Arizona, as follows:

Every engineering curriculum should consist of three parts, namely one part devoted to the *laying of a strong foundation in the fundamental sciences*, another that consists of training in the *application of these sciences to the solution of problems* encountered in some branch of the profession and a third made up of what is called the *humanistic-social science stem*.<sup>5</sup>

Cal-Aero adheres to the first two parts and relegates the third element to a correspondence course in reading suggestions for graduates.

Wherever general education has been recognized as an integral part of the two-year curriculum, such as in the state-operated institutes in New York, a major problem has

been the orientation of the student and the technical teaching staff toward a more receptive attitude for general education.

The prime motive in sending the student to the institute is technical competence. He has the feeling that, whatever general education he has had in secondary school, has not been "practical." Any further courses which are similar to those in high school, are met with a cold hostility. New courses in social living, and human relations, meet a better response, but again fail to inspire the student because of his utilitarian criterion. In this attitude, the student is aided not a little by the prevailing thinking of the instructors and administrators in the technical specialties. There are many factors that tend to make up this regrettable situation. First, there is the actual arrangement of courses in the institute. The technical departments, whether called Dental Hygiene or Electrical Technology, designate themselves as "primary" departments. This emanates from the obvious fact that the student is majoring in that particular specialty. General education courses are "service" subjects. They occupy a position of second-class citizenship. The general education department has usually little to say in student recruitment, work-study arrangements, or final placements. Disciplinary action against students is handled by the technical department. The technical departments, offering a variety of technical op-

<sup>3</sup>Technical Education News, IX<sub>1</sub> (October, 1949), 7.

<sup>4</sup>Kahler and Hamburger, *op. cit.*, 133.

<sup>5</sup>Reid, C. T. "Cal-Aero's Third Division." Technical Education News, IX<sub>1</sub> (October, 1949), 11.



tions to the student body, also make up, in sheer numbers, the preponderant group in the faculty. The primary driving force in the school is technical competence and satisfactory placement.

Another factor concerns the background of these technical instructors. They are drawn mainly from two sources, or what is considered best, a combination of these two sources. One is the technical college of engineering, the other, industry, with its attendant apprenticeship and years of practical experience. In contrast, the general education instructor generally is drawn from a liberal arts college, and any practical experience that he may have in industry, is considered to be to his credit. This dissimilarity in origin between technical and general education personnel, has made for strangeness and the apparent lack of common meeting ground of appreciation of each other's worth. The graduate of an engineering college looks back at his general education courses with contempt at their impracticality and their esoteric nature. He considers them as necessary hurdles to leap over before concentrating on his major. The college teaching of humanities and the social sciences, is not invulnerable on this point. Has not "History" been taught as "a memory exercise unconcerned with human values, a mere roll call of names and events"?<sup>6</sup> Has not "The study of English literature (been made) an end in itself, quite remote from the

concerns of man, a pleasant retreat from the battle of life"?<sup>7</sup> Do we still not have courses taught in classic languages or mathematics to train the mind, in accordance with the outmoded theory of transfer of training? The centering of these courses on subject matter content, instead of the student's needs, has bred its dragon's teeth in the form of strangeness if not hostility on the part of the technical instructor toward general education.

The instructor, who has had little formal education, but a great deal of industrial experience, exhibits a similar attitude, sometimes to cover up a feeling of envy or inferiority, but more often being against anything that isn't as tangible as a machine, or a blueprint.

The reorientation of technical personnel, then, is a real problem, which educators have recently considered from the angle of revitalizing and reasserting general education. Educators, however prominent they be in the field of education, do not have the authority that a technical leader of industry or the head of an engineering school may have. If the name of Harold H. Swift of Swift and Company, a member of the President's Commission on Higher Education, had been publicized in technical circles as being associated with *Higher Education for American Democracy*, the vital message of that re-

<sup>6</sup>*Higher Education for American Democracy*, I. New York: President's Commission on Higher Education, 1948. 59.

<sup>7</sup>*Ibid.*, 58.

port might have had a more adequate hearing, where it counted most. If the views of Dr. James Rhyne Killian of the famous Massachusetts Institute of Technology were known in these same technical circles, the value and prestige of general education would be enhanced. Dr. Killian is reported to have said in an interview with Dr. Benjamin Fine, that "one of the main problems confronting the technical professional schools . . . is to bring more humanities and social sciences into the curriculum. Because engineering programs are crowded with technological subjects, there has been a tendency to drop the so-called 'non-essential' courses." But that is an extremely short-sighted move, Dr. Killian feels. He believes that every student should have a well-rounded background in the liberal arts . . . . "At present the humanities run just about 20 per cent of the total curriculum. I think in the years ahead we are going to see that percentage substantially increased." What about the question of time? . . . . In the opinion of Dr. Killian, the curriculum should be revised, wherever necessary to make time available for general education. "It may mean that some of the specialized courses will have to be dropped in favor of the humanities. Even so, this move would be educationally sound and would mean more to the student and the nation in the long run."<sup>8</sup>

<sup>8</sup>*New York Times*, March 27, 1949.

<sup>9</sup>Kahler and Hamburger, *op. cit.*, 3.

Alfred Kähler and Ernest Hamburger, severe critics of our educational system's failure to train people for our industrial society, nevertheless state:

Any assumption, however, that only the occupational needs of a country are to be served by education, would be, of course, entirely fallacious. If the last war taught us anything besides the value of a more efficient system of occupational training it was the need for expanded moral, cultural, political and economic education. Indeed it is characteristic of all good education to aim at the development of balanced personalities—men who can play as well as work, consume as well as produce, appreciate as well as create. . . .; and they (the authors) believe that any realignment of the present system should aim at the simultaneous improvement of education for citizenship, for an understanding of human values, and for productive work.<sup>9</sup>

One final factor, which has caused difficulty for general education, and at the same time is the very reason for strengthening it, has been the disease society has suffered from, known as "specialism." Great strides in productivity, and in the consequent standard of living, have only been possible through the specialization that is concomitant with mass production. Yet this blessing is not an unmixed one. Today, it is the paraphrase of what Horace Greeley said, "Specialize, young man, specialize!" The avenue to vocational success in the economy of minute division of labor, lies in that very direction. This need to specialize has made demands on steadily enlarged portions of the students' time and interest. It has transformed undergraduate

schools into mere preparatory institutions for graduate schools. It has led to a one-sided approach. It has fostered the idea that the proposals of engineers and scientists are sacrosanct, but that the proposals of social scientists are tomfoolery, worthy of being surpassed by anybody without any orientation in the social sciences and the humanities.

As the Harvard Committee has put it:

Yet we must envisage the fact that a society controlled wholly by specialists is not a wisely ordered society. We cannot, however, turn away from specialism. The problem is how to save general education and its values, within a system where specialism is necessary.<sup>10</sup>

Specialization, so prevalent in this country, has given rise to a great number of associations. These divisions, each with their peculiar "technicways" of language, organization, dress, tools, etc. — have served as divisive influences. Yet amidst all this subdivision of society, isn't it the function of these same human participants, as *citizens*, to see the entire intermeshing of these gears, to recognize the interdependence of society?

To approach the question even from the view of those who proclaim themselves to be "practical," from the point of view of economic success, specialization has shortcomings and deficiencies.

Specializing in a vocation makes for inflexibility in a world of fluid possibilities. Business demands minds capable of adjusting themselves to varying situations and of managing complex

human institutions. Given the pace of economic progress, techniques alter speedily; and even the work in which the student has been trained no longer may be useful when he is ready to earn a living or soon after. Our conclusion then, is that the aim of education should be to prepare an individual to become an expert both in particular vocation or art and in the general art of the free man and citizen. Thus the two kinds of education, once given separately to different social classes, must be given together to all alike.<sup>11</sup>

Society likes to cling to its institutions in their established forms. Education is no exception. The arduous struggle of the movement loosely known as "progressive education" from the position of dissenting sect to that of wide acceptance, is a case in point. Change within existing educational edifices is most difficult. The unique opportunity that the technical institute has, lies in its newness, in its present form, as an educational venture. The hope for that movement is the recognition of the twin necessity of technical and general education. The social, economic, and psychological factors that tend to inhibit this development, demand that an active and conscious campaign must be organized to overcome them. Too often lip-service is paid to an admirable program with a farsighted philosophy; the administrators and teachers who accept this program are prone to ascribe opposing views to growing pains, which will be eliminated through the "natural process of

<sup>10</sup>Report of the Harvard Committee. *General Education in a Free Society*. Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1948. 53.

<sup>11</sup>*Ibid.*, 54.

development." No more serious error could be made.

A program of integration between technical and general education phases, in the form of workshops, forums, faculty lectures by prominent educators and technicians, is necessary to bring to the fore the co-equal importance of

<sup>12</sup>Report of the President's Commission on Higher Education, *op. cit.*, 69.

technical and general education. The hopes of the technical institute "in keeping intellectual curiosity alive in out-of-school citizens, of stimulating their zest for learning, of improving the quality of their lives as individuals and citizens are limited only by the vision, the energy, and the ingenuity of the college (read: technical institute—I.K.) staff."<sup>12</sup>

# *Junior College Deans: Their Qualifications And Training*

A. C. PIERCE

IN the February issue of the *Journal* there appeared a discussion of the position of deans in the organization and administration of public junior colleges in which it was found that since World War II second administrative officers, called "deans," have generally come into the system of operation with the increased number of junior colleges and junior college students.

Approximately 60 per cent of the public junior colleges have a second officer as a general administrative official whose duty it is to serve as the chief administrator's assistant and to be the principal leader of the educational program in the internal administration of the institution. The purpose of this article is to consider the qualifications and training necessary for these officers.

The personal qualifications are considered first to indicate the type of men expected for this office. And, "men" is the correct word, for there were only two women deans found in all the number contacted; furthermore, 86 per cent of the replies indicated men were preferred for the position. It was noted that many different broad types of personality may give the same result in a mature and well-rounded person. Eight specific traits of personality were listed with significant

frequency in their order of importance to the dean. They were as follows: loyalty, tactfulness, cooperativeness, enthusiasm, decisiveness, creativeness, personal appearance, and articulateness. It is interesting to note that the first trait, "loyalty," is of primary importance to an individual whose major responsibility is to assist and advise a chief administrative officer. The other traits which appeared in the returns can be grouped into three main areas: qualities of getting along well with people, those of importance to leadership of an educational program, and those which indicate good moral character.

The median age of present deans of public junior colleges is 44.25 years, somewhat lower than the age of deans of liberal arts colleges. The overwhelming majority of opinion indicated that deans should enter their positions while in their thirties, and it was felt wise by most of the respondents that deans should retire from their offices during their sixties. It was also interesting to note that most deans choose leisure activities which will give them physical exercise out-of-doors. Forty-four per cent of the present deans are members of Phi Delta Kappa, 40 per cent are Masons, and the majority belong to Protestant churches. From a third



to a fourth of them belong to one of the following civic organizations: Chamber of Commerce, Lions, Kiwanis, or Rotary. The chief point of interest is that the majority of respondents felt organizational membership optional—the dean's status should be based on his willingness to participate actively and sincerely.

From the standpoint of the dean's academic background, 91 per cent of the deans of public junior colleges at the present time have the Master's Degree. It was thought desirable by 42 per cent of the respondents that deans should have the Doctor's Degree, while 55 per cent thought the Master's Degree was adequate. Present deans have acquired an average of 24 hours of credit beyond the Master's Degree, but an average of 27 hours beyond the degree was considered desirable, indicating that present deans believe they should have more graduate training. As contrasted with reports of the academic studies of deans of liberal arts colleges, the opinions were that junior college deans do not have as much graduate study as their colleagues in the older types of institutions, nor is additional study required.

Education, social studies, sciences, and English were mentioned as undergraduate courses most frequently studied; in graduate stud-

ies, education, educational administration, and guidance. These subjects are of major significance in the dean's principal functions—supervision of student personnel and supervision of the educational program of the college. While large percentages of the respondents felt that courses in philosophy of education and health and physical education were desirable for deans of junior colleges, only a very few of them had had such courses.

High school and college teaching and public school administration were reported as being the major sources of previous educational experience. Present deans reported high school teaching in 83 per cent of the cases, college teaching in 71 per cent, public school administration in 60 per cent, and college administration in 44 per cent; the average number of years of experience in each of these was between seven and eight.

In conclusion, the qualifications necessary for a successful dean of a public junior college are equivalent to those needed in almost any kind of work which requires high intelligence and skill in working with people. Therefore, the deciding factors must be a deep interest in youth and the desire to be of service, coupled with the willingness and ability to secure the necessary additional training in professional education.

# *Science in Today's World—A Course in Physical Science at the College Level*

MORRIS J. HELDMAN

**I**N an attempt to work Physical Science into a curriculum of general education East Los Angeles Junior College has offered for the past three semesters a course entitled "Science in Today's World" which has been described in the school's published catalogue as: "A lecture and discussion course in the field of general education designed to give an understanding of physical science to non-science and non-engineering majors. Stress is placed on the development and use of the scientific method; the applicability of the scientific method to fields other than physical science; the relationship of "pure" to "applied" science; the role of science and scientists in the age of machines and experts; applications of modern science to social, political, and economic progress."

The objectives of the course fall within the framework of those for any course in general education, but more specifically stated they are:

1. To learn of the roles of science, particularly physical science, and scientists in the contemporary world.
2. To acquaint students with, and to heighten interest in, books and magazine articles about science written for the educated public without par-

ticular technical training.

3. To learn about scientific method, mostly as applied to problems in physical science; to have it illustrated constantly by examples and class discussions; and to show its possible applications and limitations in the various areas other than physical science.

It is the writer's hope that others will gather from it some ideas for courses of this nature in other colleges.

For a course of this nature the units should be modified periodically from class to class, with the changing times, and with recognition of the needs of various communities and groups. Therefore, the following list of units which was used in the spring semester of 1950 is presented as a guide only.

1. The Meaning of Science and Research
2. The Classical Scientific Method
3. Examples of the Use of Classical Scientific Method to Solve Certain Problems in Physical Science
4. Pure versus Applied Science
5. Subjective versus Objective Thinking
6. Sources of Money for Scientific Investigation
7. Science, Restrictions, Security, and Allied Topics
8. The Scientist in Modern America and in the Rest of the World—His Economic, Political, and Social Status

9. The Scientists' Responsibility to Society and vice versa
10. The Extent to which Scientific Method can Solve Economic, Political, Social, and Other Problems
11. The Relationship of Science to Philosophy, Education, and Religion

In a course which emphasizes reflective thinking, including the critical gathering of data from many sources, operating on a "text" basis is infeasible. *Readings in the Physical Sciences*, edited by Shapley, Wright and Rapport,<sup>1</sup> and *Science, Servant of Man*, a trade book by I. Bernard Cohen,<sup>2</sup> were used as the main sources of reference.

An integral part of the course is outside reading on topics directly or remotely concerned with the course content. Although newspaper articles and radio and television were of some small use, the majority of information was obtained from magazines not more than a few years old. Magazines from which articles have been used in the various class activities include:

*The American Scientist*  
*The Atlantic Monthly*  
*The Bulletin of the*  
*Atomic Scientist*  
*Congressional Record*  
*Fortune*  
*Harpers*  
*Life*  
*Newsweek*  
*Science*  
*Science Digest*

<sup>1</sup>Shapley, Wright, Rapport (editors). *Readings in the Physical Sciences*. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1948.

<sup>2</sup>Cohen, I. Bernard. *Science, Servant of Man*. Boston: Little, Brown and Company, 1948.

*Science News Letter*  
*Scientific American*  
*Scientific Monthly*  
*Time*

One of the main objectives of the course is to develop a broad sustained interest in the general topics. How well this was done can be judged in part by the following brief statistics. At the end of about two-thirds of one semester, 25 students reported reading a total of about 250 magazine articles or chapters of books. The number read by each student varied from 0 to 63, with many students reading 10 or 15; the median number was 9. At least 30 magazines were consulted and almost as great a number of books. Occasional checks were made on the honesty of the reports, and there seemed to be little reason to doubt them in terms of the class contributions and activities. The subjective feeling on the part of the instructor, based on discussions with students and faculty members through the usual campus routes, is one that suggests that interests have been aroused appreciably.

It was the writer's experience that a great deal more could be accomplished by the group if orientation to the course were carried out carefully and without hurrying. The several weeks spent each semester in informally introducing the course to the group, using all the principles of psychology, group dynamics, and just plain "getting-acquainted" that the instructor could muster

was no waste of time; it set the stage for a feeling of rapport.

Thus the class activities of the first several weeks consisted largely of lecture-discussions on the topics "The Meaning of Science," and "The Classical Scientific Method." It took time each semester for the desire to read in the field to be developed. Gradually, some of the other topics of the course were crystallized; each semester they differed somewhat as they grew out of group thinking. The current world situation suggests that they will change even more. As the topics took shape, individual and group activities were worked up for presentation to the class.

Class activities employed include: lecture-discussions, individual reports, panel and symposium discussions, lectures by faculty members from other departments, debates, and some preliminary attempts to evaluate progress. As

ways in which to enrich and diversify the class activities, students suggested trips to research laboratories, more study of formal logic, and more attention to the role of science in the world order.

To summarize briefly, the course is devoted to general rather than academic or vocational education, placing emphasis on broad cultural problems as related to science. It is not limited by formal subject-matter lines in science or other fields. As opposed to many other courses in science, its source of authority is not solely or ever largely a textbook. The approach in the classroom can be described by the key-words flexible, co-operative, permissive, problem-centered, and reflective. Scientific method and related topics are deliberately interwoven into the fabric of the course, and the teaching is directed at the stimulation of further related reading and thinking.

# *Freshman Communication*

JAMES I. BROWN

THREE important developments during this past school year emphasize the growing interest in communication. At the Buffalo Convention of the National Council of Teachers of English, November, 1949, a permanent Conference on College Composition and Communication was organized. About 500 teachers attended the first meeting in March, 1950.

Also, out of the National Convention of the Speech Association of America, December, 1949, came a new organization: The National Society for the Study of Communication. Organized to include scholars, scientists, teachers, authors, journalists, industrial relations directors, personnel managers, and others interested in communication, it has as its purposes (1) to study the nature of communication and its place in society, (2) to aid and encourage those individuals or groups attempting to improve the communicating process, (3) to evaluate the specific courses of training already existent, and (4) to disseminate the results of the studies.

A third development was the initiation of a Cooperative Study of Evaluation in General Education by the American Council on Education under the direction of Dr. Paul L. Dressel. One of the six areas included in that study is communication, thirteen different col-

leges and universities cooperating.

But this evidence of growing interest in the communication approach should not obscure the fact that there are four, not one, major varieties of freshman English — pure composition, composition-reading, composition-speech, and communication.

Pure composition with emphasis on grammar is by far the oldest, the most familiar, and still the most frequently found variety of freshman English. As late as 1943, 82 per cent of the 175 member colleges and universities of the North Central Association reporting on the content of freshman English courses, stressed grammar. A random sampling of 1948-49 college and university bulletins is a further revelation of the strength of this firmly established conservative tradition. Of 323 bulletins surveyed, 163 or 60 per cent described their freshman English course in such a way as to suggest it was of the pure composition variety.

The next most common type is the composition-reading combination of which there are two sub-varieties — one emphasizing readings as a means toward an end — better composition; the other, emphasizing readings as an end in themselves, as literature to be appreciated. The first sub-variety keeps composition in the same position of prominence as does the pure



composition type. The second, forces composition to share the spotlight with literature. Seventy or 21 per cent of the bulletins appeared to describe one or the other of these sub-varieties.

Even the relatively new composition-speech combination is all too frequently tradition minded, a combination of the traditional composition and traditional introductory speech course. Eight per cent of the courses were of this kind. In other words, a total of almost 90 per cent of all freshman English courses appear to be predominantly traditional.

The currently evolving communication approach includes approximately 10 per cent of the courses surveyed. Although there are a number of variant forms of this approach, there are certain characteristics fairly common to all.

For example, as the name suggests, all show a major concern with communication. The very words *composition* and *communication* point up the difference in emphasis. *Composition* means literally "to put together" and focuses attention on the individual's activity with words or other elements. *Communication*, on the other hand, focuses attention on relationships, on the social framework within which individuals live. Communication is thought of, therefore, as the end; composition, grammar, unity, narration, and the like are considered as means toward that end.

A second characteristic of com-

mon concern is regard for all *four* media of communication — listening, reading, speaking, and writing, the ideal being that of a four-square or well-rounded communicator.

In addition to this emphasis on well-rounded development, there is another characteristic common to most college programs, a general functional emphasis. The stress is not on public speaking, but on conversation, discussion, and oral reports, not on formal grammar and artificial theme assignments, but on levels of usage and the writing of letters and reports. In reading, the emphasis is not on the specialized area of belles-lettres but on reading for living, a broad concern with newspapers, periodicals, and books. And in listening, discussion and radio are emphasized. The stress is upon general education.

There are differences as well as similarities which deserve mention. For example, the program at Drake University is representative of what might be called the scientific or inductive emphasis. The central activity is the observation and classification of language usage. The five stated objectives for the course are: (1) understanding language as a set of symbols, (2) understanding that language is conditioned by environment, (3) becoming aware that inductive methods are most appropriate for language study, (4) developing a sensitivity to language differences, (5) developing functional communication skills.

The program on the Minneapolis campus of the University of Minnesota is representative of what might be called a social-semantic emphasis, special attention being placed on the social and semantic significance of communication and its role in a democratic society. The expressed purpose of the program is to develop the ability to communicate effectively, with critical attention to the agencies and forms of mass communication. In organization it differs from most other programs. It is offered in the Department of General Studies through the cooperative efforts of the speech, English, and journalism departments.

The program developing at the University of Southern California is eclectic in nature and differs from other programs in terms of group dynamics. The democratic planning is carried on, not only by the staff, but by the students as well. There are various student committees and student class chairmen who meet with their instructors and with the staff on occasion.

Still other programs have what is sometimes called a skills emphasis, where an attempt is made to develop specific communication skills. The program at Stephens College, Columbia, Missouri, is an excellent example, because of its high degree of flexibility and its adaptability to the varying needs and ability levels of the students. At Stephens there is no set sequence for all students to follow, no set number of hours to complete.

The needs and abilities of the students govern such matters. A total of nineteen different courses are available, from single- and dual-emphasis sections to special-interest sections for the superior student. Clinical services in reading, speech, and writing add to the flexibility of the program.

It is impossible to transplant any program without change from one campus environment to another. There are staff personality factors, student and college differences, all of which have to be taken into consideration. An indigenous growth is perhaps best, although ideas from several different programs may be adapted to different conditions with some degree of success.

No matter what type is considered, there are certain fundamental problems which must be solved if the program is to be a success: (1) staffing, (2) articulating, (3) integrating, and (4) breaking with tradition.

The success of any communication program, or for that matter of almost any educational attempt, is in the last analysis largely dependent upon the teacher. Perrin's article, "Who Should Teach Communication?" in the *Journal of General Education*, contains a detailed treatment of the personal qualities and the general and specialized education desired of such a teacher.

Two characteristics which seem particularly important are enthusiasm for and belief in the commu-

nication approach. It is difficult if not impossible to generate student enthusiasm if there is no teacher enthusiasm. And it is difficult to get results if the teacher obviously does not expect results. Given enthusiasm and conviction, most teachers will of themselves acquire any further general and specialized education needed.

An in-service training program is perhaps the most useful single device for building a satisfactory communication staff. It provides a needed broadening of view point and encourages an interdepartmental rather than a departmental outlook. Iowa, Southern California, Stephens and both programs at Minnesota make good use of such in-service programs.

The problem of articulation has two aspects, departmental and interdepartmental. Defining the province of the freshman communication course in terms of proper relationships to other departmental offerings in speech, literature, and composition is one aspect. On the St. Paul campus, for example, the communication course is considered as a general orientation to the more advanced courses, a broad foundation upon which the more specialized courses are based. There is still an introductory speech course, and advanced composition course. In other colleges the beginning speech course has been moved bodily into the freshman English sequence with little or no reorganization, the combination being called communication.

The other aspect of this problem is that of establishing better relationships between departments. Again, in-service training offers an excellent opportunity for getting other department members in for an exchange of ideas and for developing a friendly spirit of co-operation.

Integrating the language activities so that each contributes to the further development of the others is, of course, central to the whole communication approach. This problem needs much continued thought and study.

The final consideration, that of breaking with tradition, is actually implied in all the other problems. All of them demand a willingness to experiment, a mind open and receptive to new ideas. When one recalls that almost 90 per cent of all freshman English tends toward the traditional, the magnitude of this problem is apparent. Yet this heavy inertia of tradition *has* to be overcome if the full possibilities of the new communication approach are to be realized.

Actually this new approach was an outgrowth of World War II, in a sense. The earliest published plea, Lennox Grey's "Communication and War: An Urgent Letter to English Teachers," appeared in the January, 1943, issue of the *English Journal*. The present world crisis should again serve to heighten the realization that effective communication is fundamental to national security and the hope for a better world.

# A Survey of New-Type General Courses In American Junior Colleges

HOWARD L. PUTNAM

RECENTLY a study has been made of the latest offerings of new-type general courses found in the most recent catalogs of 425 junior colleges chosen at random throughout the United States. The study was restricted to colleges offering courses in the thirteenth and fourteenth grades.

The results may be useful to determine the extent to which students are being offered general education courses; to give data useful in curriculum revision;<sup>1</sup> and to provide a measure of the impact of the general-education movement upon curriculum revision.

The criteria for selecting courses included in the study were that they be (1) general, covering a broad scope of subject matter or covering a broad scope of the interests and activities of the individual person or of society's major institutions; and (2) of a new type, not the traditional established courses. The survey included both elective and required courses and programs whose stated purpose or function was either terminal (general education or vocational), university parallel, or adult and continuing education. The existence of these new courses may be con-

sidered evidence that the older types are inadequate for accomplishing the purposes of the junior colleges.

The data are classified in terms of the following variables: type of course; section of the United States in which the college is situated; whether a public or private college; and whether explicitly directed toward general education, according to the college catalog. Church-related colleges are classified as private colleges. Data are given as to the number of new-type general courses per college as well as the number for all colleges studied.

Table I serves as a summary of the distribution of the colleges included in the survey, as to public or private status and as to geographic location in the United States.

Table I NUMBER OF JUNIOR COLLEGES INCLUDED IN THE SURVEY			
Section of U.S.	Public	Private	Total Number
Northeast	33	49	82
Southeast	79	78	157
Midwest	72	38	110
Far West	65	11	76
Total, U.S.	249	176	425

Table II shows that in the United States there are more new-type general courses in the public than in the private junior colleges. The

<sup>1</sup>Freeman, K. H. "General Education Program of One Thousand Girls." *Junior College Journal*, XVIII (March, 1948), 389.



ratio is nearly two to one. Only in the northeast do the private colleges have a greater number of courses than the public colleges, whereas in the far west the public colleges have nine times as many courses as the private colleges.

For the purpose of this study, the four sections of the United States were arbitrarily defined by bordering states as follows:

The northeast — Pennsylvania, New York, and New Jersey.

The southeast—Delaware, Maryland, West Virginia, Kentucky, Arkansas, and Texas.

The midwest—Ohio, Indiana, Missouri, Oklahoma, Kansas, Nebraska, and the Dakotas.

The far west—New Mexico, Colorado, Arizona, Wyoming, and Montana.

Table II  
NUMBER OF NEW-TYPE GENERAL  
COURSES IN THE SURVEY

Section of U.S.	Public	Private	Total Number
Northeast	183	224	407
Southeast	341	271	612
Midwest	262	159	421
Far West	543	57	600
Total, U.S.	1329	711	2040

Table III may be compared with Table II. Table III corrects Table II for the number of schools in each case, as it shows the number of courses per school. For the United States as a whole, the public college has more new-type general courses than the private college, in a ratio of better than five to four. The average number of such courses for all colleges in the United States is 4.8.

In analyzing Table III, it is seen that the national ratio is approximated in the northeast and in the southeast: the public colleges have more new general courses. In the midwest the private colleges have considerably more of these courses, while the opposite is true in the far west. Here the extremes are in the midwest and far west.

Table III  
NUMBER OF COURSES PER SCHOOL  
NEW-TYPE GENERAL COURSES  
IN JUNIOR COLLEGES

Section of U.S.	Public	Private	All Colleges
Northeast	5.6	4.7	5.0
Southeast	4.4	3.6	4.0
Midwest	3.6	4.1	3.8
Far West	8.4	5.2	7.9
All U.S.	5.4	4.1	4.8

Table III indicates that, considering all colleges studied, the far west leads in the number of new-type general courses per college, with about eight such courses in the average college, followed by the northeast with five, and the southeast and midwest with four.

From Table IV it appears that in the United States as a whole about one-fourth of the colleges indicate that they offer general education. General education is a popular aim of junior colleges in the far west where 37 per cent state it as one of their aims; it is least popular in the southeast, where only about 18 per cent of the junior colleges profess to offer it. The southeast and midwest lag as compared with the far west and the northeast.

The number of colleges, as



Table IV  
NUMBER OF COLLEGES WITH  
GENERAL EDUCATION AS A STATED AIM

<i>Section of U.S.</i>	<i>States G.E. as Aim</i>	<i>G.E. Aim not Stated</i>	<i>Per Cent of Total Stating G.E. Aim</i>
Northeast	25	57	31
Southeast	28	129	18
Midwest	25	85	23
Far West	28	48	37
U.S. Total	106	319	25

shown in Table IV, may be compared with the number of new-type general courses per college in Table V which shows that in the entire United States there are about four such courses per non-general-education school, and nearly seven per general-education school. The general-education schools are the more radical in this respect, and they are so in each of the four sections of the country. The relative difference between general-education and non-general-education colleges is least in the midwest and the southeast, and greatest in the northeast and far west.

Table VI shows that the courses most widely found in the country as a whole were Health, Music Appreciation, World Social Problems of Today, World History, Art Appreciation, Orientation, Physical Science Survey, History of Western Civilization, History of World Literature, World Current Affairs, and Problems of the Individual Person. The last named appears to be similar to Orientation, and several others named are similar to each other. The data in Table VI show that the relative frequency of the courses in the list varied in different sections of the

Table V  
NUMBER OF NEW-TYPE COURSES PER SCHOOL  
JUNIOR COLLEGES HAVING GENERAL EDUCATION AS STATED AIM

<i>Section of U.S.</i>	<i>States G.E. as Aim</i>	<i>G.E. Aim not Stated</i>	<i>Ratio of the Two</i>
Northeast	7.0	4.1	1.7
Southeast	5.2	3.7	1.4
Midwest	4.6	3.5	1.3
Far West	10.2	6.3	1.6
U.S. Total	6.9	3.9	—

Table VI  
NUMBER OF COURSES OFFERED, BY TITLES OF COURSES  
425 JUNIOR COLLEGES

<i>Type of Course</i>	<i>N.E.</i>	<i>S.E.</i>	<i>M.W.</i>	<i>F.W.</i>	<i>Total, U.S.</i>
Health	25	61	50	52	188
Music Appreciation	29	52	27	38	146
Social Prob., World Today	26	33	30	23	112
History of the World	20	40	19	22	101
Art Appreciation	24	28	20	26	98
Orientation	10	38	18	28	94
Physical Science Survey	7	22	25	22	76
Hist. of West. Civilization	12	29	20	12	73
History of World Literature	17	15	11	23	66
Current Affairs, World	16	17	13	15	61
Problems of Individual	18	13	12	20	63
Communication	20	4	13	16	53
Comparative Government	9	8	3	27	47
Introd. to Business	2	17	6	16	41
Psychology of Adjustment	11	4	5	21	41
First Aid	2	13	6	14	35
Survey of Natural Sciences	7	13	7	5	32
Mental Hygiene	4	8	5	12	29
Survey of Social Sciences	4	14	5	5	28
Nature Study	1	13	7	6	27
Survey of Bio. Sciences	3	8	6	9	26
Recent History of the World	8	6	5	7	26
Contemp. World Literature	7	3	9	7	26
Preparation for Marriage	3	8	5	9	25

Other new general courses besides those listed in Table VI:

<i>Course</i>	<i>Total Number of Courses, U.S.</i>
American Institutions	23
Humanities Survey	22
Work Experience and Student Activities	19
Social Problems of the U.S.	18
State or Region Problems (U.S.)	18
Appreciation of Literature	15
Choosing a Vocation	14
Masterpieces of Literature	10
Comparative Religion	10
Great Books	10

United States. Thus Health took third place in the northeast, and first in other sections.

Many biological science survey courses were omitted because there was doubt whether they were general rather than specialized in char-

acter. Actual titles of individual courses vary from those listed here. To avoid a very long list of titles, courses were classified under the headings given. For example, a course on Business Trends was classed as Current Affairs. Along

with Humanities Survey Courses, those on humanities integration (few in number) and the history of the humanities were included in the classification "humanities survey." The "social problems" category does not include many sociology courses of that title; these were omitted because they may actually be taught as specialized courses. This category was used only for broad courses, of many titles, on contemporary economic, political, and social world problems. There was a great variety of titles of courses grouped here as "social problems" courses. Highly integrated social-science general courses were placed in the "social problems" category rather than in the Social Science Survey category. Titles varied somewhat in courses on world history, and this category includes a few courses on the lives of great men.

The courses lumped together here as Problems of the Individual included such titles as: Personal Improvement; Personal and Social Development; Success Techniques; Personal Development; Problems of Living; Healthful and Happy Living; Personality Development; Consumer Problems; Citizenship Problems; and Personal Economics and Finance. These courses were designed to teach the individual to administer his own affairs, and some gave special emphasis to personal appearance. They appear to have much in common with the Orientation courses, and with guidance programs.

Unusual courses found, but not included in the study, are Negro History; Word Study; Fundamentals of Language; general courses on technology and shop work; the history of large areas such as Latin America or the Far East; courses on all aspects of life in such regions as the Far East (one region per course); Flower Arranging; Spanish Civilization; Recreation; Safe Driving; French Civilization; Theatre Appreciation; Conservation of Sight or of Hearing; Political Leadership; Child Development or Welfare; and the history of the local state. The broad introductory courses in sociology that are likely to be very general in nature were not included in this survey because they represent a traditional specialty in name. General mathematics courses, which are far more numerous than Health or any other title included, were also omitted. Not only do they vary considerably in their breadth of outlook, but they are so well established as to be no longer new.

Table VII classifies the courses most commonly found in the junior colleges throughout the United States under three headings: traditional subjects, the individual, and society. The traditional subjects are treated in new generalizing ways. These general headings were chosen rather arbitrarily, and are merely suggestive, as are the assignments of respective courses to the headings chosen. Although the courses might be classified in various other ways, here the effort

Table VII  
SUMMARY OF 1673 OF THE MORE FREQUENT  
NEW-TYPE GENERAL COURSES IN JUNIOR COLLEGES

New general courses on traditional subjects	755		
Appreciation of the Arts	244		
Music Appreciation		146	
Art Appreciation		98	
The Social Sciences	228		
History		200	
World History			101
Western Civilization			73
Recent World			26
Social Sciences Survey		28	
The humanities other than above	149		
Literature		117	
World Literature, History			66
Contemporary Literature, World			26
Appreciation of Literature			15
Masterpieces of Literature			10
Humanities, Survey of		22	
Great Books		10	
The Natural Sciences	134		
Physical Science Survey		76	
Natural Sciences Survey		32	
Biological Sciences Survey		26	
New General courses on the individual	598		
Health and Hygiene	223		
Health		188	
First Aid		35	
Survey of Problems of Individual	157		
Orientation		94	
Self Management		63	
Inter-personal Relations	70		
Psychology of Adjustment		41	
Mental Hygiene		29	
Communication	53		
Nature Study	27		
Preparation for Marriage	25		
Work Experience and Student Activities	19		
Comparative Religion	10		
Choosing a Vocation	14		
New general courses on society, its institutions, and the problems thereof	320		
All Society	173		
Social Problems, World Today		112	
Current Affairs, World		61	
All U.S.	41		
Social Problems, U.S. Today		18	
American Institutions		23	
State or Region (U.S.) Problems	18		
Introduction to Business		41	
Comparative Government		47	

was to indicate the desirability of making some kind of summary under a few headings.

Table VIII lists the types of courses, with national totals, given in public or private colleges, classified by section of the country. The far west leads among public junior colleges, but lags among the private colleges.

Table IX classifies types of courses according to whether or not they are given in schools having general education as their aim, by

section of the country, with national totals.

### CONCLUSION

The data gathered in this study show several general tendencies: (1) The average public junior college has more new-type general courses than private junior colleges, except in the midwest.

(2) Junior colleges that explicitly aim at general education offer more new-type general courses than do other junior colleges.

(3) The new-type general courses

Table VIII  
NUMBER OF COURSES OFFERED, BY TITLES OF COURSES  
PUBLIC AND PRIVATE JUNIOR COLLEGES

Course	Public Junior Colleges					Private Junior Colleges				
	N.E.	S.E.	M.W.	F.W.	U.S.	N.E.	S.E.	M.W.	F.W.	U.S.
Health	8	30	33	46	117	17	31	17	6	71
Music Apprec.	11	30	15	32	88	18	22	12	6	58
Social Problems	10	25	19	21	75	16	8	11	2	37
World History	4	19	13	21	57	16	21	6	1	44
Art Appreciation	10	11	12	22	55	14	17	8	4	43
Orientation	6	24	14	26	70	4	14	4	2	24
Phys. Sci. Survey	3	13	15	18	49	4	9	10	4	27
West. Civilization	7	22	11	10	50	5	7	9	2	23
World Literature	6	9	6	20	41	11	6	5	3	25
Current Affairs	8	8	9	14	39	8	9	4	1	22
Prob. of Individ.	6	4	5	18	33	12	9	7	2	30
Communication	14	1	9	14	38	6	3	4	2	15
Compar. Govt.	4	4	1	24	33	5	4	2	3	14
Introd. to Bus.	2	11	5	15	33	0	6	1	1	8
Psych. of Adjust.	8	4	3	20	35	3	0	2	1	6

Table IX  
TYPES OF COURSES  
COLLEGES WITH GENERAL EDUCATION AS AN AIM,  
AND OTHER COLLEGES

Type of Course	Colleges with G.E. as Aim					Other Colleges				
	N.E.	S.E.	M.W.	F.W.	U.S.	N.E.	S.E.	M.W.	F.W.	U.S.
Health	12	15	16	21	64	13	46	34	31	124
Music Appreciation	19	13	6	14	52	10	39	21	24	94
Social Problems	15	8	10	9	42	11	25	20	14	70
World History	6	10	5	9	30	14	30	14	13	71
Art Appreciation	10	9	4	11	34	14	19	16	15	64
Orientation	5	7	7	11	30	5	31	11	17	64
Phys. Sci. Survey	5	5	10	10	30	2	17	15	12	46
Western Civilization	5	5	4	5	19	7	24	16	7	54



most frequently given are those on Health, Music Appreciation, Social Problems of Today, World History, Art Appreciation, Orientation, Physical Science Survey, History of Western Civilization, History of World Literature, Current Affairs, and Problems of the Individual. The order of frequency of occurrence of these courses varies somewhat according to the section of the United States, to whether a college is public or private, and to whether general education is an explicit aim.

The survey shows that there are new types of courses of a general scope, in large number and great variety, throughout the country. It was found that individual schools vary considerably in degree and direction of experimentation with these courses. It appeared that military schools do less of this experimenting than do other junior colleges, and it was observed that some private religious colleges, both Catholic and Protestant, are offering many of the new kinds of courses.

# *The Junior College World*

JESSE P. BOGUE

**National Defense Contacts.** Inquiries pour into the Washington Office regarding contacts about national defense. The U. S. Office of Education has been designated as the focal point within the federal government for consolidating and appraising information as to facilities and needs. Specifically, assignments have been made within the U. S. Office and this information has been published in the Novem-

ber 15th issue of *Higher Education*. It is possible that many junior college people may not have seen the list of assignments or that the November issue has been discarded. In order, therefore, to assist junior college administrators in knowing whom to contact in the U. S. Office on various problems the names and primary functions of personnel are reprinted:

Accelerated Programs in Higher Education . . . . .	John Dale Russell
Area and Language Studies . . . . .	Kendric N. Marshall
Audio-Visual Aids to Defense Training . . . . .	Floyde E. Brooker
Civil Defense (Protection of Life and Property) . . . . .	William A. Ross
Curriculum Adjustments in Secondary Schools . . . . .	J. Dan Hull
Defense Facilities of Higher Educational Institutions . . . . .	Ernest V. Hollis
Defense-Related Government-Sponsored Campaigns in Schools . . . . .	Carl A. Jessen
Defense-Related Occupational Information and Guidance . . . . .	Harry A. Jager
Defense-Related Research . . . . .	Ralph C. M. Flynt
Education for the Health Professions . . . . .	Lloyd E. Blauch
Engineering, Science, and Management Defense Training in Colleges and Universities . . . . .	Henry H. Armsby
Extended School Services for Children of Working Mothers . . . . .	Hazel F. Gabbard
Health and Physical Fitness Programs . . . . .	Frank S. Stafford
Illiteracy in Relation to Manpower Utilization . . . . .	Ambrose Caliver
Information Concerning Legislation on Student Loans and Scholarships . . . . .	Buell G. Gallagher
In-Service Teacher Training as Related to Non- Vocational Defense Activities . . . . .	Don S. Patterson
Liaison for Research Contacts in Educational Institutions . . . . .	Bernard B. Watson
Liaison for Selective Service; Liaison for Military Training Programs in Civilian Institutions . . . . .	Claude E. Hawley

Libraries and Defense Information . . . . .	Ralph M. Dunbar
National Scientific Register . . . . .	James C. O'Brien
Practical Nurse Training . . . . .	Ward P. Beard
Publications and Defense Information . . . . .	George Kerry Smith
School Assistance in Federally Affected Areas . . . . .	Erick L. Lindman
School Transportation, Evacuation of School Children; Priorities and Allocation of Critical Materials and School Supplies . . . . .	
Status of Military Reserve Personnel in Education . . . . .	E. Glenn Featherston
Teacher Recruitment and Pre-Service Training . . . . .	William R. Wood
Vocational Defense Training of Less than College Grade . . . . .	W. Earl Armstrong
	Raymond W. Gregory

The address of all the above named persons is Federal Security Agency, U. S. Office of Education, Washington 25, D.C.

*College Movies.* A number of colleges have been making moving pictures for public relations. Some of these have been supplemented with talking and other sound recordings. Del Mar College, Corpus Christi, Texas, has a good film, setting forth the facts about the buildings, equipment and various programs offered at that institution. Paris Junior College, Paris, Texas, has made, with the assistance of some professional direction, a sound picture in colors. Mt. San Antonio College, Walnut, California, produced an excellent sound film by utilizing nearly all departments of the college in the work. It is the best we have seen in setting forth the idea of the district organization for the support of the college. It was produced primarily to educate the immediate public on the organization and growth of the college and to indicate what the further needs were for its develop-

ment. Stockton College, Stockton, California, has just announced its 30-minute movie of the college and its activities, produced by the staff, faculty, and students. It is designed especially for high school graduates in the surrounding territory of the college.

*Instrument Society Host.* The New York Institute of Applied Arts and Science, Buffalo, New York, acted as host to the Instrument Society of America. More than \$5,000,000 worth of scientific instruments were on display at the Buffalo Memorial Auditorium. The Institute students attended the display as part of the regular class work in mechanical technology and metallurgical technology. This exhibit gave the students and staff an opportunity to see a wide display of the newest developments in all kinds of instrument control. Engineers and instrument apprentices from every section of the United States and from some foreign countries attended the exhibit.

*Junior College and Military Training.* Great interest in some form

of military training program for junior colleges has been shown during the past several months. Many copies of the resolutions passed by associations and councils have come to the Washington Office. These resolutions vary in details, but all are most emphatic that the time has come for junior colleges to receive recognition. Typical of these resolutions are those passed by the Central California Junior College Association:

"WHEREAS, students who obtain all of their higher education in the junior colleges, and students who attend junior colleges for two years and then transfer to four-year colleges and universities are denied the privilege of participating in a military training program, and

WHEREAS, military service is reducing drastically the enrollment in the junior colleges thereby making available both faculties and facilities for presenting a military training program, and

WHEREAS, junior colleges are located in both large and small cities throughout the state, thereby making it possible for students taking part in such a program to live at home and thus reduce costs and minimize dormitory problems,

THEREFORE, be it resolved that we, the Administrative Council representing the nine member schools of the Central California Junior College Association, go on record as favoring the institution of an ROTC or some other appropriate military training program in

the junior colleges of the State of California."

*Educational Television.* A real battle is underway in Washington to secure reservation of a few television channels for educational purposes. It has been proposed that all remaining channels be now assigned to commercial broadcasters. There are only a few channels left for assignment. When these are allocated there will be no others available, so it is said, for all time to come. If educational institutions and systems are denied the rights to the television channels now, there will be no hope of ever receiving them. Whatever educational programs may be broadcast through commercial channels will doubtless follow the general pattern of radio. No great expectations for anything like a stable and dependable use of commercial channels has been forecast by educators based, as it is, on experience with commercial radio. They envision that at best educational television would be mere crumbs from the commercial table. Even these would be brushed aside in case better paying programs should want the time. Arguments presented by educators follow the reasoning that it would be as foolish to allocate all territory in a city for commercial uses only and with no consideration for school plants as it would be to allocate all air channels to commercial firms.

*Central Oregon Community College.* The Central Oregon Community College, Ben, Oregon, was es-

established in 1949 under the Oregon State System of Higher Education. In 1950, the Blue Mountains Community College was established under the same authority at Baker, Oregon. Mr. H. M. Nicholson is the coordinator of Central and Mr. Harold Kirklin of Blue Mountains. During the present year, 148 students have been enrolled at Central. No figures are available at this time for Blue Mountains. A special commission has been making studies for the establishment of community colleges in the state. It is reported that the legislature will consider recommendations at the present session.

*Harbor Junior College Advances.* A training program for all new employees of the Douglas Aircraft plant in Long Beach, California, was inaugurated on January 8th at Harbor Junior College, Wilmington, California. Employees are receiving full day time instruction and training in basic machine shop operations. They receive full pay during the six weeks training period. Twenty-five employees will be assigned to the school for each six weeks interval. This pipe-line plan is being explored for various colleges in several fields of instruction and training. In commenting on the program, Dr. J. Raymond

Casey, Director at Harbor Junior College, said: "The Training program is similar to those previously arranged for Shell Chemical Company, and for the Minnesota Mining Company, and is in line with our philosophy that Harbor Tech is equipped to, and desirous of providing this type of community service to industries in this area."

On January 29, Harbor began another program known as Educational Secretaryship, designed for adults in training for the numerous openings in school offices. *Amarillo's Evening College.* A copy of the Amarillo (Texas) College's illustrated catalogue for the evening division has come to the Washington Office. It is printed as a supplement to the 22nd annual catalogue of the College. Ten fields of what might be called solid college credit work are offered in Business Administration, Engineering, English, Homemaking, Mathematics, Modern Languages, etc. There are also many courses in the field of trades and industries and basic preparatory and accelerated high school work for adults. Distributive education with short intensive courses is being taught by people in the community with years of practical experience in this field.



# *From the Executive Secretary's Desk*

JESSE P. BOGUE

FROM time to time, the Executive Secretary will publish under the *Desk* what appeals to him as being significant contributions to junior college education. For the most part, if not entirely, these contributions will deal with actual projects—things that have been done and information on *how* they were accomplished. The present issue of the *Desk* is devoted to one of these projects, namely, the Evening Junior College of Rochester, Minnesota.

Last November, it was this writer's pleasure to spend two days in the city of Rochester as the guest of Dean and Mrs. Roy W. Goddard. We had the further pleasure of spending an evening with Dr. and Mrs. Emil Heintz, the Director of the Evening College which has made an outstanding contribution to the life of Rochester. At that time, we asked Dr. Heintz if he would outline in considerable detail what he was doing and *how* it was being done. In the hope that Rochester's experience may be of assistance to many other colleges we are publishing Dr. Heintz's report just as he gave it to us.

## *Introduction*

If qualified personnel and proper facilities are available, any educational service, for which there is a reasonable demand and which is

not being provided by any agency, will be given through the Evening Community College. And any adult or out-of-school youth, sixteen years or older, regardless of color, residence, race, or previous schooling, many enroll.

The only requirement for admission is the interest and capacity to profit by the instruction given. Much counselling must be done. Guidance through a given program is on an individual basis, and where necessary, students frequently request to be permitted to repeat a course and doing so carries no stigma. There are no grade levels. Progress is functional.

Standard courses are organized on a regular quarterly basis. After these are underway, special courses are organized at the rate of two to three a week. Suggestions for additional educational services are always welcomed and carefully weighed.

## *Place of Class Sessions*

The majority of courses are held in the junior college, high school, and junior high school quarters. But classes may be held anywhere: in the home, in a business establishment, at the Chamber of Commerce, at a labor assembly, in a church basement, in the public library, or in the city hall. Some of the most successful classes have been held in non-school places.

Homemaking classes have been successfully taught in the homes of the instructors. Several classes, including millinery and clothing construction, are taught in the high school cafeteria.

A class in local government was taught in the council chamber of the city hall. A window decoration course was taught in the assembly of the Chamber of Commerce, and several classes in salesmanship were handled in the public library.

#### *Instructors*

Instructors are drawn from almost every occupation. About half are professional teachers in the junior college, senior high school, junior high school, elementary division, and special departments. Other professional teachers are brought in from surrounding communities. But about half of the sixty teachers of adult classes are business, professional, and skilled workmen. A majority of the homemaking instructors are successful homemakers with professional training.

#### *Tuition and Fees*

The policy, as established at the beginning of the evening community college program, is to have instruction pay for itself with the help of various Smith-Hughes aids and to have the school district furnish the facilities and supervision. There has been little difficulty in maintaining this standard.

For non-Smith-Hughes aided courses, the standard fee is 21 cents per student-teacher contact hour and for reimbursable courses is 7

cents. In case a course is planned for large groups, this rule is waived and a fee consistent with the anticipated attendance is decided upon.

#### *Size of Class*

Although some classes have an enrollment running in the hundreds, the vast majority have in the neighborhood of sixteen to eighteen enrolled. Often a limit is placed on the size in order to permit more personalized instruction.

No class is organized, except in work given for apprentices, with less than twelve enrolled and paid in full.

#### *Enrollment Figures*

In reporting enrollment figures, enrollment by individuals and not class registrations are counted. Although, for an example, an adult might take four subjects in a given year, he is counted only once. Also, only those who have registered and paid in full and have actually attended classes are counted.

Attendance figures do not include appearances at public forums, and the like. Only individuals participating in regular course work are treated in enrollment statistics.

#### *Courses Offered*

For administrative purposes, courses are given in nine departments: collegiate, general interest, special interest, commercial, distributive occupation, trade extension, homemaking, supervised home study, and veterans' on-the-farm training.

#### *Collegiate Courses*

These courses are given as an extension of the junior college pro-

gram. Last year the following subjects were offered: children's literature, engineering drawing, higher algebra, medieval quest for happiness, music for children, elements of earth science, developmental psychology, fundamentals of speech, principles of economics, nineteenth century English literature, and principles of physical education.

A rotation of courses is practiced from year to year so that adults may earn credits in a large variety of work. This year the program includes: general biology, geography of western continents, geography of eastern continents, tests and measurements, introductory psychology, visual aids, the family, and others.

#### *General Interest Courses*

General interest courses are usually of a cultural nature and bear no particular label. Adults of all ages and all classes are encouraged to attend.

The list of general interest courses for last year included auto mechanics for amateurs, introduction to art, geology of southeastern Minnesota, modern great books (two sections), parliamentary procedure, photography (two sections), practical public speaking (two sections), conversational Spanish, intermediate conversational Spanish, and your city's government.

Many courses have been given in this area. Some given this year and in past years include auto driving, painting in various mediums,

everyday psychology, radio program production, the slide rule, physical geology, petrology, good English, practical calculus, and rug hooking.

#### *Special Interest Courses*

Sometimes there is an educational need which, because of its nature, is limited to a relatively small group. Such current classes as citizenship training, English for foreign born, and lip reading (two sections) are examples.

#### *Commercial Courses*

Commercial courses are conventionally a part of all adult education programs. Offerings at present include beginning, intermediate, and refresher typing, beginning, intermediate, and refresher shorthand, business machines, bookkeeping, business English, personal typing, and commercial arithmetic.

#### *Distributive Occupation Courses*

Distributive occupation courses are offered under the national program of business in-service training supported in large part by state and federal funds. Enrollment is limited to those directly engaged in the distribution of goods or services.

Examples of distributive occupation courses given are: bookkeeping for small businesses, business law for small businesses, business machines for small businesses, office practice for small businesses, practical business English, Spanish for distributive workers, Sales Clinic for sales and service workers, business correspondence, mer-

chandise display, modern personnel practices, personnel management, cost accounting, show card and sign lettering, techniques of advertising, organizing and financing a business, time and motion study applied to retail businesses, advertising layout, human relations in business, and sales counselling.

#### *Trade Extension Courses*

Trade extension courses are offered under the same national program as those for workers in the distributive occupations. Anyone engaged in a trade or semi-trade capacity may enroll.

The following are examples of courses offered: related carpentry, related electricity, related painting and paper hanging, related sheet metal, related auto mechanics, related body and fender, related plumbing, related printing, related bricklaying, practical mathematics, building estimating, English for foreign medical technicians, welding, and Spanish for nurses and nurses' aides.

#### *Homemaking Courses*

One of the largest areas of service is the homemaking division. These courses are also offered under a national program and are supported in large part by federal and state funds. Courses are open to homemakers and potential homemakers.

Last year, fifty-six homemaking classes were organized. The following courses are given as often as interest warrants: Beginning clothing construction, intermediate

clothing construction, advanced clothing construction, home crafts, foreign menus and recipes, home landscaping, home gardening, beginning lampshade making, advanced lampshade making, leather accessories, beginning millinery for fall and winter, beginning millinery for spring and summer, advanced millinery, needlework, advanced needlework, slip covers and draperies, short cuts to tailoring, beginning tailoring, intermediate tailoring, advanced tailoring, upholstering and furniture repair, wood accessories, home decoration, table setting and service, feeding of children, handbags and accessories, children's clothing, interior decorating, psychiatry for everyday living, emotional problems of pre-school children, emotional problems of middle-aged children, planning a new home, making your marriage a success, adjustment problems of children, and adjustment problems of adults.

#### *Supervised Home Study Courses*

To meet the needs of those who wish to continue their education but who cannot regularly attend scheduled classes because of living out-of-town or because of job or home duties, home study courses are made available through special arrangements with leading correspondence schools, both public and private.

#### *Veterans Agriculture*

The veterans' agricultural training program was first organized in March, 1946. At present there are 115 men taking the training under

the direction of five full-time and four part-time instructors.

An integrated program of educational activities has been developed including classroom instruction, farm shop, field trips, demonstrations, farm practice under supervision, cow testing, soil conservation, homemaking, farm safety, and social relationships.

Subjects covered in the classroom are: pasture renovation, swine raising, farm accounting, selection and judging of dairy cat-

tle, selection and purchase of a farm, fertilizers, control of dairy diseases, grass silage, corn borer control, care and management of pigs, crop rotations, minerals for livestock, soil conservation, feeding dairy cattle, farm fire prevention, rural electricity, balancing feeding rations, farm management, poultry feeding and care, care and management of orchards, home gardens, insulation and ventilation of farm buildings, and establishing wind-breaks.



## Notes on the Authors

MARION GAITHER KENNEDY

THIS month's editorial, *The Junior College and National Defense*, was written by EUGENE B. CHAFFEE, president of Boise (Idaho) Junior College and president of the American Association of Junior Colleges.

*Junior College Deans: Their Qualifications and Training* is the second of two articles written for the *Journal* by ALFRED C. PIERCE, assistant dean-registrar of Del Mar Junior College. His first article appeared in the February issue under the title *Deans in the Organization and Administration of Junior Colleges*.

MORRIS J. HELDMAN, instructor in chemistry and physical science, explains how East Los Angeles Junior College has attempted to work physical science into the general education curriculum by offering *Science in Today's World—A Course at the College Level*.

HOMER P. RAINEY, president of Stephens College, Columbia, Missouri, has written a very interesting review of *Higher Education in Minnesota*, a report by the Minnesota Commission on Higher Education.

ISRAEL KUGLER's article, *The Technical Institute and General Education*, reveals some interesting data concerning the position of general education in technical institutes as opposed to specialism.

Mr. Kugler is an instructor in the department of general education at the State University of New York. He was formerly an electronic technician in the Navy and taught history and English at the New York Naval Shipyard Apprentice School.

JAMES I. BROWN has contributed an article on one of the major varieties of freshman English—*Freshman Communication*—which focuses attention on the social framework within which individuals live. Brown is associate professor of rhetoric at the University of Minnesota and co-author of the Brown-Carlson Listening Comprehensive Test.

HOWARD L. PUTNAM has made *A Survey of New-Type General Courses in American Junior Colleges* and reports his findings in this issue. Putnam is Executive Assistant of the University of Florida Press.

## Recent Writings

### JUDGING THE NEW BOOKS

*Higher Education in Minnesota*, A report by the Minnesota Commission on Higher Education. Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press, 1950.

In 1947 the State Legislature of Minnesota authorized the appointment of a commission of educators to make a study of higher education in Minnesota "for the purpose of studying higher education and making a report to the commissioner of education." This volume is a report of the fine work and recommendations of that commission. The legislature provided that the commission should represent all phases of higher education in Minnesota. On the commission, therefore, were representatives of the state university, of the private and denominational colleges, public and private junior colleges, and the public schools of Minnesota. The work of the commission included an examination and evaluation of the entire pattern of collegiate education in Minnesota.

The work of this commission was the outgrowth of an earlier commission created by the University of Minnesota which laid the ground work and did the preliminary investigation into the problems which this volume carried through in greater detail. It might also be noted here that as a result of the work of this commission, the legislature in 1949 au-

thorized the continuance of the study under a new commission. Thus this process of study, evaluation and recommendation has taken on something of a permanent character in the State of Minnesota.

This report is divided into seven parts and includes eighteen chapters. The seven major divisions include:

1. The setting of Higher Education in Minnesota
2. The Student Potential for Higher Education in Minnesota
3. Junior College Education in Minnesota
4. Liberal Arts Education in Minnesota
5. Teacher Education in Minnesota
6. Education at the University of Minnesota
7. The Future of Higher Education in Minnesota

This report contains a wealth of information regarding the needs for higher education in Minnesota and a fine evaluation of the program now in operation, but of most interest are the recommendations which the report offers for the further development of higher education within the state. In the final section of the report the commission does an excellent job of presenting to the people of Minnesota the "next steps in higher education" and "some long range goals" to guide the people and the legislature for the future.

Space will not permit discussion of all of these recommendations but some of them are of such

fundamental character and genuine interest to the entire education profession that they should be noted here. The commission points out that the major problem facing this state is that many capable young people in Minnesota are prevented from obtaining a higher education due to certain barriers which stand in their way. The report gives a fine summary of these barriers which include the economic barrier, the distance barrier, the cultural barrier, and the barrier of limited curriculums.

Some of the recommendations made to overcome these difficulties are:

1. The state should provide a system of scholarships "from funds appropriated by the legislature to be awarded annually by the State Board of Education to students who have completed the high school courses with outstanding success and who would not be able to attend college without such additional aid."

2. In order to overcome the distance barrier to college education the commission recommended that (a) "all our resources in planning and financial management should be directed toward full utilization of the collegiate institutions we now have"; and (b) "to reduce the 'barren areas' in Minnesota's pattern of higher education, the commission recommends that a few regional junior colleges be established." It further recommends that accredited public junior colleges could receive state aid in

amounts per student at least equal to that the high schools receive.

3. In order to reduce the barrier of restricted curriculums the commission recommends experimentation that will more effectively relate high school courses to the actual needs of the students, "recognizing" says the commission, "that such efforts will have appositive and vitalizing effect on college programs too."

4. Another feature of the commission's recommendation is the recognition of a need for a better collegiate product in terms of social and civic competence. The commission therefore urges that "one of the necessary steps in higher education is to bring college students out of their cloistered halls and to give them practice in the skills of civic and social living by designing all aspects of college education—classes, campus activities, and community relationships—with an intent to provide functional experience in democratic living."

5. The commission also has a good section dealing with the vocational, semi-professional, professional and technological training. It is in this area that the public junior colleges have a large function to perform in the development of their two-year programs.

For any state which is interested in improving its educational program, this Minnesota study will serve as an excellent model and guide.

HOMER P. RAINEY

# Selected References

H. F. BRIGHT

Little, J. Kenneth. "Higher Education Needs Interpretation." *College Public Relations Quarterly*, I (April, 1950), 5-9.

In this article the Director of Student Personnel Services and Registrar of the University of Wisconsin points out that the general public really knows very little about American higher education and that it is the province of public relations to find out why this is so and to fill the void. Americans have great faith in education in the large but really know little about the object of their faith, particularly at the higher education level. Among the facts which need looking into are the following:

Why do foundations studying cancer, heart disease and poliomyelitis receive more response to appeals for funds than does higher education?

Does the public know that while the increasing birth rate presages higher future enrollments, the present physical plant for higher education is inadequate?

Do they know the extent to which economic status determines attendance at college?

Do they know that nearly three times as many students will attend college if they can do so in their home town?

Do they know that tuition only pays about one-third the cost of higher education and that since World War II the percentage of the national income expended for public education has declined by more than one-third?

Do they know that the economic value of a college education is steadily dwindling?

The fact that few persons know anything about the above questions points to a need for forceful and dramatic interpretation of higher education.

Dr. Little points out that the American people ask four major questions about higher education:

1. Who should go to college?
2. Does a college education pay?
3. How shall we pay for higher education?

## 4. What is a college education for?

With regard to the first question, the *Fortune* Survey on Higher Education (September, 1949) indicated that 83 per cent of parents wanted their sons to go to college and 69 per cent wanted their daughters to go. On the other hand, there has been much talk of the dangers of "over-education," the "dilution" of education and the like. Little points out that the question of who *should* go to college is probably beside the point. Many students want to go and the chances are that more and more will be given the chance perhaps through the development of more community colleges. Certainly the findings of the President's Commission on Higher Education and recent experience with G.I. students are in agreement that the removal of economic barriers to college attendance does not necessarily lower the quality of student bodies.

"Does a college education pay?" Many students think so and more than half the parents questioned in the *Fortune* survey "believed a college education is essential to get ahead in the world." It is true that at present college graduates are in demand and that they usually command better incomes than do workers generally. Little points out that the economic value of a college degree is decreasing and that the higher income of college graduates may be due to factors other than college education. What he does not point out is the fact that as degrees become more widely held, the lack of one may become an almost insuperable handicap.

He indicates also that the economic worth of higher education must be judged not only from the standpoint of the individual student but also from that of the State. Among nations, economic welfare tends to be correlated even more with educational level than with economic resources.

It is pointed out that the question of financial support for higher education needs considerable study, particularly with regard to the best way of presenting the problem to a public which educators have shortsightedly accustomed to tying

support to numbers of students. The fact that many students cannot attend college simply because of the financial burden involved offers a fertile field for connecting in the minds of the public the need for more higher education with their own needs as individuals.

"What is a college for?" *Fortune* found that occupational training and financial betterment were the reasons for attending college uppermost in the minds of the parents questioned. The reasons usually advanced by educators were lowest in the list for laymen. Here is a great opportunity for public relations personnel to bridge the gap between the thinking of educators and the thinking of the public.

Today, as never before, there exists a tremendous need for liaison between the college or university and its various publics. The job of adequately interpreting the college to the public and the public to the college is one to challenge the best abilities of experts in this field.

Traxler, Arthur E. "15 Criteria of a Testing Program." *The Clearing House*, XXV (September, 1950), 3-7.

In this article, one of the real authorities on testing programs lists 15 criteria for deciding whether or not a testing program is accomplishing the general results which all such undertakings should produce.

1. Is the testing program comprehensive?

Does it include enough general and special tests to furnish a real profile of the students' strengths and weaknesses?

2. Does the testing program include all students?

Comprehensive coverage is necessary for adequate guidance of every student as well as for the drawing of true conclusions about the student body.

3. Are the tests given at regular intervals?

Growth studies are of little value if based upon tests given at haphazard chronological intervals.

4. Are the tests well timed?

If tests are not given at the

times at which their results will be useful, much of the effectiveness of the testing program is lost.

5. Are the tests used comparable? Frequent changes in test batteries used from year to year result in a confused condition and negate to a large extent the value of regular testing.

6. Do the tests used agree with the objectives and curriculum of the school?

Although it is obvious that tests used should be chosen to test for these objectives toward which the school's efforts are directed, this is a criterion that is often overlooked. Tests' results may have little meaning if they cannot be referred to the objectives of the institution.

7. Are the specific tests carefully chosen?

Dr. Traxler recommends a committee representing several schools with similar objectives and programs as the agency which should be designated to select tests.

8. Are the tests carefully administered to each group?

Careless administration renders good tests valueless. If large groups are used careful attention should be given to provision for standard conditions. If tests are given in classes, it is very necessary to orient the faculty as to the necessary procedures as well as the purposes of the tests.

9. Are the tests scored accurately?

This clerical task must be carried out with care or the scores have no meaning. Although Traxler does not suggest it here, the use of mechanical test scoring is often worth consideration.

10. Are norms appropriate?

National norms may not be suited to students in special purpose schools or classes. In order to develop adequate norms it is often necessary to work through such an agency as the Educational Records Bureau.

11. Are the test results quickly re-



ported to teachers and counselors in understandable terms?

Most tests are optimally useful during the period immediately following their administration. Speed in distribution of results is thus of first importance. It is also necessary to use terms comprehensible to the consumer. Ordinarily percentile marks are easily understood by the least sophisticated teacher. Where much orientation of the faculty has been carried out, standard scores may be used.

12. Are the test results recorded on individual cumulative record forms?

Generally speaking, the growth for an individual over a period of years or months is more important than his status at a given time. Thus it is essential that clear and accurate cumulative records be kept. Along with test data, much personal information about the individual can and should be kept.

13. Is a definite attempt made to relate the test scores to other kinds of information?

No tests so far devised can alone carry the load of interpreting the status and growth of individuals. All possible information must be gathered and related to the test results.

14. Is there provision for special testing?

Where difficulties appear in the individual student's reaction to the regular tests given, it is often possible to conduct more careful analysis by means of special tests. For example, a low score on an intelligence test may be largely due to a defect in reading ability which can be corrected or to a personality difficulty which might show up clearly on a personality test.

15. Does the school have an in-service program for educating teachers in the use of test results?

This, the most important of all criteria, is often neglected. If teachers do not understand and

do not use the results of standard tests, the testing program is largely wasted.

The criteria set forth by Dr. Traxler are comprehensive and should be applied. No doubt many schools will be able to improve the effectiveness of their testing programs by checking them against these measures. Certainly the usual testing program can be improved with expenditure of thought, time and effort.

Thurston, Lee M. "How Can High Schools and Colleges Agree on a Plan for College Admission Regardless of the Pattern of High School Offerings?" *The North Central Association Quarterly*, XXV (October, 1950), 203 - 209.

Dr. Thurston, who is superintendent of public instruction for Michigan, considers in the article the problem of college admission without consideration of the pattern of the high school offering. He argues that it is essential that secondary schools be permitted to set up their programs from the standpoint of the best interests of the student, and that this cannot always be best accomplished under the restriction of an admissions pattern set up by the colleges. It is essential, however, that if the high school is permitted to depart from a traditional pattern of preparatory courses, it should be prepared to take on some added responsibilities with regard to an adequate college admissions policy. Thurston describes a plan by means of which Michigan schools and colleges have been able to develop a program which both consider more desirable than the traditional one.

In 1937 the Michigan Study of the Secondary School Curriculum was begun. Soon afterward it became apparent that it would be desirable to experiment with college admissions requirements. Accordingly, nearly all the colleges of the state and fifty-five selected secondary schools signed an agreement under which students were to be admitted to the colleges from these secondary schools without reference to pattern of preparation. However, it was understood that the students must be recommended by the

high school as being among the more able students of its graduating class.

This experiment turned out well in terms both of the high school programs and the progress of the students admitted to colleges. Therefore, in 1945 a Joint Commission on High School-College Relations was formed made up equally of representatives of the Michigan College Association and of the Michigan Secondary School Association. Late in 1946 a new agreement was developed and agreed upon. Under this agreement the college agrees to admit students without regard for their patterns of subjects provided they are recommended as before by the high school. It is further provided that students must have adequate preparation for specialized curricula; it is recommended that colleges provide accelerated courses for students who need specialized preparation which they were unable to get in high school.

The high schools, on their part, agree to assume responsibility for and to furnish evidence of compliance with, the providing and continuing of such procedures as:

- a. A program involving the construction of an adequate personal file for each student and the development of a summary of the information contained therein for submission to the college.
- b. A basic curriculum study and evaluation.
- c. A continuous follow-up of former students.
- d. A continuous orientation and information program in the high school concerning occupations and specialized college courses.

The agreement further provides for a committee to pass on applications of new schools and to determine whether criteria are being met and for a staff to serve the committee. It provides that schools not under the agreement will continue to be governed by preparation pattern requirements.

Admissions under this program started in May, 1947, and 37 colleges, 13 schools of nursing and 116 high schools are included. Any high school, accredited by the University of Michigan, which was willing to accept the responsibilities of the agreement was admitted. Soon five

area associations of high schools developed which conduct conferences, produce newsletters and act together on many matters. Generally speaking, the effect of the agreement seems to the author to have been very good. He argues that any state wishing to proceed similarly can do so and that it is vital that all consider such action as a means of furthering local control of secondary schools and the concomitant development of the American educational tradition.

Redefer, Frederick L. "The Eight Year Study — After Eight Years." *Progressive Education*, XXVIII (November, 1950), 33-36.

The Eight Year Study was one of the most famous, certainly one of the most thorough, and one of the more expensive of the studies which have been made in an effort to improve the education of American youth. Dr. Redefer reports the discouraging results of a conference of some representatives of the thirty schools and the staff members of the Eight Year Study.

Generally it was agreed that the study had been worthwhile in developing "workshops," new practices, new leaders in education and better relationships between schools and colleges. However, many pessimistic notes were struck. It was pointed out that few schools have become aware of and used the results of the Eight Year Study. Few of the schools engaged in the study have continued to work spiritedly on the development of a core curriculum, good evaluation practices and curriculum changes. Relatively few copies of the books describing the study have been sold and it can hardly be said that it became a strong force in education.

Reasons for this were sought but not conclusively found. Some that were suggested included the following:

1. The connection of the study with "Progressive Education" was bad in that during the last several years everything connected with this term has been under fire.
2. The war was a source of difficulty with its specialized demands on education.

3. The number of schools was too large.
4. The public including Boards of Education was not enough involved in the study.

Generally speaking, it seems clear that before any other experiments of this sort are attempted it might be worthwhile to undertake to determine the factors necessary for such a study to have a lasting effect. What are the obstacles and how may they be overcome? This question opens a field for research.

**DRUMMOND J. McCUNN and O. J. WOHLGEMUTH**, "Something New Has Been Added to Contra Costa County," *The School Executive*, LXIX (December, 1949), 58.

The Superintendent and a member of the Board of Trustees describe the formation of the new Contra Costa County Junior College District.

As a result of a meeting on May 2, 1947, a committee headed by Dr. L. W. Smith was appointed to study the need for junior college facilities. As this

committee studied not only needs but also the organization of existing junior college districts, they concluded a major difficulty in most cases was lack of sufficient funds. A plan to establish a county-wide district with a total assessed valuation of \$284 million was formulated and approved by the voters. A board and a superintendent were then elected.

A first step was to ask for a junior college representative in each high school of the district. Each representative was nominated by the chief administrative officer for the high school concerned.

Classes were soon established with an initial enrollment of 250 students although permanent facilities were not yet available. For the second semester, about 1,000 students will be enrolled.

It is anticipated that when the college is permanently organized it will have an unusual opportunity to take care of the needs of the youth of the area.

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